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Acetaminophen Relieves Inflammatory Pain Through CB1 Cannabinoid Receptors in the Rostral Ventromedial Medulla

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Acetaminophen Relieves Inflammatory Pain Through CB₁ Cannabinoid Receptors in the Rostral Ventromedial Medulla

abbreviated title:

RVM cannabinoid signaling in acetaminophen analgesia

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41 **Abstract**

42 Acetaminophen (paracetamol) is a widely used analgesic and antipyretic drug with only
 43 incompletely understood mechanisms of action. Previous work, using models of acute
 44 nociceptive pain, indicated that analgesia by acetaminophen involves an indirect activation of
 45 CB₁ receptors by the acetaminophen metabolite and endocannabinoid re-uptake inhibitor
 46 AM 404. However, the contribution of the cannabinoid system to anti-hyperalgesia against
 47 inflammatory pain, the main indication of acetaminophen, and the precise site of the relevant
 48 CB₁ receptors have remained elusive. Here, we analyzed acetaminophen analgesia in mice of
 49 either sex with inflammatory pain and found that acetaminophen exerted a dose-dependent anti-
 50 hyperalgesic action, which was mimicked by intrathecally injected AM 404. Both compounds lost
 51 their anti-hyperalgesic activity in CB₁^{-/-} mice confirming the involvement of the cannabinoid
 52 system. Consistent with a mechanism down-stream of pro-inflammatory prostaglandin formation,
 53 acetaminophen also reversed hyperalgesia induced by intrathecal prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂). To
 54 distinguish between a peripheral/spinal and a supraspinal action, we administered
 55 acetaminophen and AM 404 to *hoxB8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice, which lack CB₁ receptors from the peripheral
 56 nervous system and the spinal cord. These mice exhibited unchanged anti-hyperalgesia
 57 indicating a supraspinal site of action. Accordingly, local injection of the CB₁ receptor antagonist
 58 rimonabant into the rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM) blocked acetaminophen-induced anti-
 59 hyperalgesia, while local RVM injection of AM 404 reduced hyperalgesia in wild-type mice but
 60 not in CB₁^{-/-} mice. Our results indicate that the cannabinoid system contributes not only to
 61 acetaminophen analgesia against acute pain but also against inflammatory pain, and suggest
 62 that the relevant CB₁ receptors reside in the RVM.

63
64
65 **Significance statement**

66 Acetaminophen is a widely used analgesic drug with multiple but only incompletely understood
 67 mechanisms of action including a facilitation of endogenous cannabinoid signaling via one of its
 68 metabolites. Our present data indicate that enhanced cannabinoid signaling is also responsible
 69 for the analgesic effects of acetaminophen against inflammatory pain. Local injections of the
 70 acetaminophen metabolite AM 404 and of cannabinoid receptor antagonists as well as data from
 71 tissue specific CB₁ receptor deficient mice suggest the rostral ventromedial medulla as an
 72 important site of the cannabinoid-mediated analgesia by acetaminophen.

73

74 Introduction

75 In the past decades, several potential molecular mechanisms have been proposed that may
 76 explain how acetaminophen exerts its analgesic action. These include the inhibition of
 77 cyclooxygenases (COXs) (Flower and Vane, 1972; Hanel and Lands, 1982; Graham and Scott,
 78 2005), the activation of spinal serotonergic descending projections (Tjolsen et al., 1991; Pini et
 79 al., 1996), an involvement of the brain opioid system (Tjolsen et al., 1991; Herrero and Headley,
 80 1996; Pini et al., 1996; Sandrini et al., 2001), inhibition of nitric oxide generation (Bjorkman et al.,
 81 1994; Bujalska, 2004), and activation of spinal TRPA1 channels by the acetaminophen
 82 metabolites N-acetyl-p-benzoquinoneimine (NAPQI) and p-benzoquinone (Andersson et al.,
 83 2011). In addition, the generation of N-arachidonoylphenolamin (AM 404) from acetaminophen
 84 through deacetylation to p-aminophenol and the subsequent conjugation with arachidonic acid
 85 by central nervous system fatty amide hydrolase (FAAH) (Högestatt et al., 2005) has drawn the
 86 attention to a possible involvement of the endocannabinoid system. AM 404 increases tissue
 87 concentrations of the endocannabinoid arachidonoyl ethanolamide (AEA), also known as
 88 anandamide, through an inhibition of anandamide reuptake into neurons and astrocytes
 89 (Beltramo et al., 1997; Fegley et al., 2004). After spinal or systemic application, AM 404 exerts
 90 analgesic activity against acute pain, evoked by noxious chemical stimuli, as well as against
 91 inflammatory and neuropathic pain (Gühring et al., 2002; La Rana et al., 2006). In line with an
 92 important contribution of the endocannabinoid system, acetaminophen-mediated antinociception
 93 was lost in CB₁ receptor-deficient (CB₁^{-/-}) mice (Mallet et al., 2008) as well as in mice lacking
 94 FAAH (FAAH^{-/-} mice) (Mallet et al., 2010). Accordingly, acetaminophen-induced analgesia was
 95 also reduced by the FAAH inhibitor URB 597 (Mallet et al., 2008) and by the CB₁ receptor
 96 antagonists AM 251 and rimonabant (Ottani et al., 2006; Dani et al., 2007; Mallet et al., 2008).
 97 The studies discussed above support a contribution of the endocannabinoid system to
 98 acetaminophen-mediated analgesia. However, most of these studies (Ottani et al., 2006; Mallet
 99 et al., 2008; Mallet et al., 2010) tested acetaminophen in models of acute nociceptive pain, i.e.
 100 pain evoked by acute noxious thermal, mechanical, or chemical stimuli applied to naïve animals
 101 in the absence of nociceptive sensitization by inflammation or neuropathy. These acute pain
 102 models only poorly reflect the clinical indications for acetaminophen, which is primarily used to
 103 treat mild inflammatory pain (Bradley et al., 1991). In fact, acute antinociceptive effects of
 104 acetaminophen in humans are rather vague or do not exist at all (Olesen et al., 2012; Tiippana
 105 et al., 2013). In the present study, we have analyzed the anti-hyperalgesic properties of
 106 acetaminophen in mice with inflammatory hyperalgesia and demonstrate a critical contribution of
 107 CB₁ receptors to the effects of acetaminophen against inflammatory hyperalgesia. Additional

108 experiments with tissue-specific $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice and local injections of AM 404 or the CB_1 receptor
 109 antagonist rimonabant suggest that the CB_1 receptors relevant for inflammatory anti-
 110 hyperalgesia reside in the RVM which is a well-known site for endogenous pain control.

111

112 **Methods**

113 *Mice.* Experiments were performed in wild-type mice (C57BL/6J; www.jax.org/strain/000664),
 114 $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice (genetic background C57BL/6N; (Marsicano et al., 2002);
 115 www.informatics.jax.org/allele/MGI:2182924), and $hoxb8-CB_1^{-/-}$ mice (genetic background
 116 C57BL/6; (Witschi et al., 2010); <http://www.informatics.jax.org/allele/MGI:4881836>). $hoxb8-CB_1^{-/-}$
 117 mice were obtained by crossing mice carrying floxed CB_1 receptor alleles ($CB_1^{fl/fl}$ mice;
 118 www.informatics.jax.org/allele/MGI:3045419; Marsicano et al., 2003) with mice expressing in
 119 addition the cre recombinase in spinal cord neurons and glial cells as well as in neurons of the
 120 dorsal root ganglia ($hoxb8$ -cre mice; Witschi et al., 2010). Behavioral experiments on $hoxb8-CB_1^{-/-}$
 121 $^{-/-}$ mice were performed with $hoxb8$ -cre-negative $CB_1^{fl/fl}$ littermates as “wild-type” controls.
 122 Animals were housed under controlled environmental conditions (22°C, 12/12 light/dark cycle)
 123 and were allowed to take food and water *ad libitum*.

124

125 *Behavioral testing.* Experiments were performed in adult (7-9 week old) female and male mice.
 126 Mice were randomly assigned to treatment groups. On the first day of the experiments, each
 127 mouse was tested several times to obtain baseline paw withdrawal thresholds (PWTs). Animals
 128 were placed in Plexiglas boxes on a metal grid and allowed to accommodate to the test
 129 confinement for at least 1 hour prior to starting behavioral experiments. Mechanical sensitivity
 130 was measured using electronically controlled von Frey filaments (IITC, Woodland Hills, USA). At
 131 least 3 measurements were made for each time point. The experimenter was blind to the
 132 genotype or to the type of treatment (vehicle or drug) in all experiments. Permission for animal
 133 experiments was obtained from the Veterinäramt des Kantons Zürich (license 92/2007 and
 134 126/2012/16).

135 Inflammatory hyperalgesia was induced using the yeast extract zymosan A (Meller and Gebhart,
 136 1997). Zymosan A (Fluka) was suspended in 0.9% NaCl and injected subcutaneously (0.06 mg /
 137 20 μ l) into the plantar side of the left hind paw 24 hours prior to the administration of
 138 acetaminophen or AM 404. Spinal PGE₂-induced hyperalgesia was evoked through intrathecal
 139 injection of PGE₂ (Sigma; 0.4 nmoles / 4 μ l, dissolved in 1% ethanol and 99% artificial

140 cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF)). Intrathecal injections were made 1 hour before application of
 141 acetaminophen. For details, see ref. (Reinold et al., 2005).

142

143 *Drug administration, intrathecal and intraRVM injections.* Acetaminophen (Sigma) was dissolved
 144 in 0.9% NaCl. The acetaminophen-containing solution or vehicle (0.9% NaCl, 400 μ l) was given
 145 per os (p.o.) through stainless steel tubes (Delvo SA, Switzerland). Rimonabant (SR141716A;
 146 Tocris) (Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1994) was dissolved in a mixture of 43% (vol/vol) DMSO, 43%
 147 aCSF and 14% ethanol. Injection volumes were 5 and 4 μ l for AM 404 (Tocris) and PGE₂,
 148 respectively. AM 404 (Tocris) was dissolved in 40% DMSO and 60% 0.9% NaCl. Intrathecal (i.t.)
 149 injections were performed under isoflurane anesthesia at the level of the lumbar spine using a
 150 Hamilton syringe (Ahmadi et al., 2001). A small amount of black ink (1% v/v) was added to
 151 permit post-hoc verification of proper i.t. injections. Injections into the rostral ventromedial
 152 medulla (RVM) were performed with stainless steel cannulas. Fully anaesthetized mice were
 153 placed in a Kopf stereotaxic frame and implanted with a cannula using the following coordinates
 154 which were calibrated to the cranial Bregma points: x= -5.7; y= 0; z_{cranium}= +4.2. The cannula was
 155 fixed with dental cement and the cement was secured at the skull with 2 - 3 screws. The fixed
 156 cannula was used to insert a 30G needle attached to a Hamilton syringe 5.8 mm deep. A
 157 volume of 300 nl was injected. For post hoc verification of correct targeting of the RVM 1 % v/v
 158 Evans blue was included in the injection solution.

159

160 *Hepatotoxicity assays.* Mice were treated p.o. with vehicle (0.9 % NaCl), 200, 300 or 400 mg/kg
 161 acetaminophen. Twenty four hours later, blood was collected after decapitation, and the liver
 162 was dissected. To quantify liver damage we determined the blood levels of three enzymes,
 163 alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartic aminotransferase (AST) and lactate dehydrogenase
 164 (LDH), that are released upon acute liver damage from hepatocytes into the blood stream using
 165 the UniCel DxC 800 Synchron Clinical Systems (Beckman Coulter, USA). Livers were put in 4%
 166 formalin overnight and subsequently embedded in paraffin. Tissue sections (3 μ m) were cut and
 167 stained with hematoxylin-eosin following standard procedures (Fischer et al., 2008). Liver
 168 degeneration was defined by the presence of vacuolar degeneration and pink-red tissue
 169 discoloration due to sinusoidal congestion and apoptotic cell body formation, as described
 170 previously (Zhao et al., 2016). For quantification of liver degeneration, the ratio of venules
 171 surrounded by healthy or discoloured tissue was calculated.

172

173 *Immunohistochemistry and in situ hybridization.* For immunohistochemistry, three mice of each
 174 genotype were deeply anesthetized with a mixture of 25 mg/ml ketamine, 5 mg/ml xylazine, and

0.1 w/w% promethazine in H₂O (1 ml/100 g, intraperitoneal [i.p.]) and subsequently perfused transcardially through the ascending aorta with 0.9% NaCl for 2 min, followed by 100 ml of a fixative containing 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB; pH 7.4) for another 20 min. After perfusion, spinal cords and brains were immediately isolated and postfixed in 4% PFA for 2 hours and washed in 0.1 M PB. Transverse sections of the spinal cord at a lumbar level as well as coronal sections of the cerebral hemispheres and the cerebellum (all 50 µm thick) were cut using a vibratome (Leica, VTS-1000). Free-floating sections were collected in 0.1 M PB. For immunoperoxidase staining, the sections were first extensively washed in 0.1 M PB. To block endogenous peroxidase activity, sections were afterwards incubated in 1% H₂O₂ in 0.1 M PB for 10 min and again washed in 0.1 M PB. Following washing in 0.05 M Tris-buffered saline (TBS; pH 7.4) conditioning Triton X-100 (TBST), the sections were blocked in 10% normal donkey serum (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, USA) for 45 min. Sections were then incubated with polyclonal affinity-purified guinea pig anti-CB₁ antibodies (1 : 250; ~1 µg/ml; Fukudome et al., 2004) at 4°C for 48 hours. The antibodies were dissolved in 0.05 M TBS. After multiple washings, the sections were treated in TBS with biotinylated goat anti-guinea pig IgG (1 : 300; Vector Laboratories) for 2 hours and after further washing in TBS incubated with avidin-biotinylated horseradish peroxidase complex (1 : 500; Elite-ABC, Vector Laboratories) for 1.5 hours. Development of the immunoperoxidase reaction was done with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) as chromogen and 0.01% H₂O₂ dissolved in TB (pH 7.6). Sections were briefly submerged in chrome gelatin (0.05% chromium potassium sulfate dodecahydrate, 0.5% gelatin and 0.05% NaN₃ in DW), dried, soaked in xylene (2 x 15 min), and covered in DePeX (SERVA). Sections containing the RVM were treated with 0.5% OsO₄ in PB for 20 min at 4°C, dehydrated in an ascending series of ethanol and propylene oxide, and embedded in Durcupan (ACM, Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland) following DAB development. During dehydration, sections were treated with 1% uranyl acetate in 70% ethanol for 15 min at 4°C. Light microscopic analysis of immunostaining was carried out with a Nikon Eclipse 80i upright microscope. Micrographs were taken with a Nikon DS-Fi1 digital camera.

Statistical analyses. Data are presented as mean ± SEM and *n* indicates the number of animals tested. For dose response curves, PWTs were transformed into % maximum possible effects (% MPE), with 0% and 100% being the inflamed pre-drug value and the full return to pre-inflammation value, respectively. Data from the dose response relationship of acetaminophen and AM 404 were fitted to the Hill equation $y = y_{\max} - [(y_{\max} - y_{\min}) / (1 + (ED_{50}/D)^{nH})]$; with y_{\max} , maximum %MPE reached with saturating doses; $y_{\min} = 0$; D , actual dose; ED_{50} half-maximum effective dose; and nH , Hill coefficient. To compare the magnitude of antihyperalgesic effects of

210 acetaminophen or AM 404 in wild-type and $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice or in the presence or absence of
 211 antagonists, areas under the curve (AUCs) were calculated for the changes of PWTs from pre-
 212 drug baseline over 150 min or 80 min, following application of acetaminophen or AM 404,
 213 respectively. When more than two groups were compared, statistical analyses were done by
 214 one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni or Dunnett's post hoc tests or two-way ANOVA, when
 215 two factors were analyzed. In all other experiments, statistical analyses were performed using
 216 the unpaired Student's t-test (two-tailed). Statistical significance was accepted for $P \leq 0.05$.

217

218 Results

219 *Anti-hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen and AM 404 in inflammatory pain*

220 Because acetaminophen is an antipyretic analgesic whose main indication is mild inflammatory
 221 pain, we analyzed its analgesic effects in the zymosan A model of inflammatory pain (Meller and
 222 Gebhart, 1997; Reinold et al., 2005). Subcutaneous (sct) zymosan A injection (0.06 mg in 20 μ l
 223 0.9% NaCl) into one hindpaw decreased mechanical PWT from 4.11 ± 0.06 g (mean \pm SEM, $n =$
 224 30 mice) to 1.10 ± 0.06 g within 24 hours after injection. For first experiments we chose a dose
 225 of 200 mg/kg, p.o., because this dose has successfully been used in studies by others (e.g.
 226 Högestätt et al., 2005; Mallet et al., 2010; Dalmann et al., 2015; Gentry et al., 2015).
 227 Acetaminophen caused a time-dependent partial reversal of zymosan A-induced decreases in
 228 PWT. Acetaminophen reached a maximum effect at 60 to 80 min after administration (Fig. 1A).
 229 PWT in the contralateral non-inflamed paws were not affected. Accordingly, acetaminophen had
 230 no effects on PWT in naïve mice (Fig. 1B). Testing the effects of different doses of
 231 acetaminophen revealed significant anti-hyperalgesic effects at doses ≥ 30 mg/kg. Dose-
 232 response curves (Fig. 1D) display % maximum possible analgesia determined for the time
 233 interval between 60 and 80 min after drug application. Data were fitted to the Hill equation
 234 revealing an ED_{50} of 30.1 ± 4.9 mg/kg and a maximal effect (E_{max}) of 44.3 ± 3.4 %.

235 We next tested whether this anti-hyperalgesia would be mimicked by CNS injection of the
 236 acetaminophen metabolite AM 404. Different doses of AM 404 were injected directly into the
 237 mouse spinal canal 24 hours after zymosan A injection (Fig. 1E,F). Mechanical sensitivities were
 238 measured for 100 min at 20 min intervals. Similar to acetaminophen, AM 404 caused a
 239 significant dose-dependent increase in PWTs (Fig. 1E). Dose-response curves (Fig. 1F) reveal
 240 an ED_{50} was 2.55 ± 0.04 nmol and E_{max} of 46.2 ± 0.2 %. These experiments demonstrate that
 241 acetaminophen and its metabolite AM 404 exert potent dose-dependent anti-hyperalgesic
 242 actions against inflammatory pain.

We also examined whether acetaminophen exerted behavioral effects that might interfere with the read-outs of pain tests (Fig. 1G,H). To this end, we assessed effects of acetaminophen on motor coordination and sedation in the rotarod test and on muscle strength in the horizontal wire test. At doses of 200 and 300 mg/kg (p.o.) acetaminophen did not impair performance in these two tests (for statistics see figure legends).

Liver toxicity of acute treatment with acetaminophen

Compared to clinically used doses in humans (1 g in a 70 kg person is equivalent to 15 mg/kg), the acetaminophen doses required in the present study to achieve at least 40% reduction in hyperalgesia (≥ 200 mg/kg) appear rather high. In humans, doses higher than 150 - 250 mg/kg may induce hepatotoxicity (Brunton et al., 2011). On the other hand, a 10 to 15-fold difference between effective doses in humans and rodents is not unusual given the much higher metabolic rate of mice (Sharma and McNeill, 2009). However, because this ratio provides only an estimate and may differ between drugs, we tested whether the doses employed here would cause acute liver toxicity in mice (Fig 2). We measured blood levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) 24 hours after administration of different doses of acetaminophen (figure 2A-C). For all three enzymes, increases in enzyme activities were minor at a dose of 200 mg/kg and did not reach significance (ALT [IU/l]: 63 ± 10 , 214 ± 104 , 3624 ± 2010 , for vehicle, 200 mg/kg and 300 mg/kg, respectively; AST [IU/l]: 281 ± 42 , 457 ± 48.6 , and 1349 ± 730 ; LDH [IU/l]: 1072 ± 170 , 1674 ± 147 , 7498 ± 4663 ; for statistics see figure 2). At a dose of 300 mg/kg, blood levels of all three enzymes increased several-fold and increases became statistically significant for ALT. We also investigated potential changes in liver histology caused by acetaminophen (Fig. 2D). Tissue damage was quantified by counting the number of venules surrounded by healthy or discolored liver tissue per field of view. No detectable liver degeneration was observed after 200 mg/kg. At 300 mg/kg, the number of venules in degenerating tissue was increased but this increase did not reach statistical significance. Statistically significant tissue damage was however found after 400 mg/kg. Based on these results, we decided to perform all subsequent experiments with an acetaminophen dose of 200 mg/kg.

Contribution of CB₁ receptors to anti-hyperalgesia by acetaminophen

In order to test for a possible contribution of the cannabinoid systems to acetaminophen and AM 404-mediated analgesia in inflammatory pain conditions, we tested the effects of acetaminophen and AM 404 in global CB₁ receptor deficient (CB₁^{-/-}) mice with an inflamed hindpaw. Wild-type and CB₁^{-/-} mice did not differ in their baseline mechanical sensitivities (PWTs

278 were 3.9 ± 0.1 g, $n = 15$ and 4.0 ± 0.09 g, $n = 13$), for naïve wild-type and $CB_1^{-/-}$, respectively)
 279 and developed similar inflammatory hyperalgesia (PWTs were 0.93 ± 0.10 g, $n = 15$, and $1.00 \pm$
 280 0.05 g, $n = 13$, for zymosan A injected wild-type and $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice, respectively). Anti-hyperalgesic
 281 effects of acetaminophen were virtually absent in the $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice. For statistical analyses, we
 282 calculated the area under the curve over time (AUC [g·h]) for the difference between post-drug
 283 PWTs and the pre-drug PWT baseline. AUCs were 0.30 ± 0.34 g·h, $n = 6$, versus 1.23 ± 0.16
 284 g·h, $n = 8$, in wild-type mice ($P = 0.012$, unpaired Student's *t*-test) (Fig. 3A). We next assessed
 285 whether the anti-hyperalgesic action of the acetaminophen metabolite AM 404 would also be
 286 lost in $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 3B). To this end, we injected 10 nmoles of AM 404 intrathecally. AM 404
 287 again reversed mechanical hyperalgesia in wild-type mice (AUC: 1.07 ± 0.14 g·h; $n = 7$) but
 288 completely failed to reduce hyperalgesia in $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice (AUC: -0.22 ± 0.03 g·h, $n = 6$, $P < 0.001$,
 289 unpaired Student's *t*-test). The lack of a pain-relieving action of acetaminophen and AM 404 in
 290 $CB_1^{-/-}$ mice corresponds well with the reversal of acetaminophen- and AM 404-mediated
 291 analgesia by the CB_1 receptor antagonists (inverse agonists) AM 251 and rimonabant described
 292 previously by others in different pain models (La Rana et al., 2006; Ottani et al., 2006; Dani et
 293 al., 2007; Mallet et al., 2008). It strongly suggests that anti-hyperalgesia by systemic
 294 acetaminophen requires activation of CB_1 receptors. A lack of CB_1 receptors during development
 295 may cause changes in neuronal circuits (Berghuis et al., 2007) that could potentially interfere
 296 with the actions of acetaminophen. In order to exclude this possibility, we tested whether
 297 systemic antagonism of CB_1 receptors with rimonabant would recapitulate the effect of genetic
 298 ablation of CB_1 receptors. Rimonabant (5 mg/kg, i.p.) administered immediately before
 299 acetaminophen indeed completely prevented the anti-hyperalgesic action of acetaminophen
 300 (Fig. 3C).

301

302 *Analgesic effect of acetaminophen in PGE₂-induced inflammatory pain*

303 It has previously been suggested that acetaminophen might act through an inhibition of COX-
 304 dependent prostaglandin formation in the central nervous system (Flower and Vane, 1972;
 305 Hanel and Lands, 1982; Chandrasekharan et al., 2002; Graham and Scott, 2005). To test
 306 whether acetaminophen reduces inflammatory hyperalgesia through a mechanism downstream
 307 of central prostaglandin production, we induced hyperalgesia through intrathecal PGE₂ injection
 308 (Taiwo and Levine, 1986; Uda et al., 1990; Reinold et al., 2005). One hour after PGE₂ injection
 309 (0.4 nmol), PWTs decreased from a baseline value of 3.50 ± 0.08 g to 0.90 ± 0.06 g ($n = 13$)
 310 (Fig. 4A). Acetaminophen (p.o., 200 mg/kg) but not vehicle (p.o. 0.9% NaCl) administered 1 hour
 311 after PGE₂ injection partially reversed PGE₂-induced hyperalgesia. The AUCs ([g·h]) were
 312 calculated between the post-drug PWTs and a straight line between the PWT at 1.5 and 4.0

hours after PGE₂ injection. In wild-type mice, the average AUC (anti-hyperalgesia) in acetaminophen-treated mice (AUC: 1.51 ± 0.14 g·h, $n = 7$) was significantly higher than that of the vehicle treated group (AUC: 0.073 ± 0.073 g·h, $n = 6$ mice, $P < 0.001$, unpaired Student's t-test) (Fig. 4B). We also assessed the hyperalgesic effect of intrathecal PGE₂ in CB₁^{-/-} mice and the potential reversal of PGE₂-induced hyperalgesia by acetaminophen in these mice. PGE₂ induced the same level of hyperalgesia, but acetaminophen was again completely devoid of anti-hyperalgesic effects in CB₁^{-/-} mice. Average AUCs in acetaminophen-treated CB₁^{-/-} mice (AUC: 0.20 ± 0.58 g·h, $n = 6$) were virtually identical to those in vehicle-treated CB₁^{-/-} mice (AUC: 0.064 ± 0.46 g·h, $n = 6$, $P = 0.95$, unpaired Student's t-test). Two-way ANOVA yielded a significant genotype x treatment interaction $F(1,25) = 5.46$, $P = 0.03$. These results suggest that acetaminophen alleviates inflammatory hyperalgesia through a mechanism independent of prostaglandin formation.

Ablation of CB₁ receptors from the periphery and the spinal cord does not block anti-hyperalgesia by systemic acetaminophen

We next aimed at identifying the anatomical origin of acetaminophen-induced anti-hyperalgesia. Our first analyses concentrated on CB₁ receptors in the spinal cord for two reasons. First, intrathecal injection of AM 404 mimicked the anti-hyperalgesia induced by systemic treatment with acetaminophen in several respects and, second, activation of spinal CB₁ receptors inhibits transmission for nociceptive signals between primary nociceptors and second order dorsal horn neurons *in vitro* (Liang et al., 2004; Kato et al., 2012). The latter action might be considered a prime candidate mechanism for acetaminophen-induced anti-hyperalgesia. To distinguish a peripheral/spinal from a supraspinal site of action, we made use of *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice, which were generated by crossing *hoxb8*-cre mice with CB₁^{fl/fl} mice. During development, *hoxb8*-cre is expressed in all DRG neurons and in all neurons and astrocytes of the spinal cord up to level C4. *hoxb8*-cre is however virtually absent from the brain (Witschi et al., 2010). We verified the specific ablation of CB₁ receptors from the spinal cord by comparing CB₁ receptor expression in the spinal dorsal horn and in the periaqueductal grey (PAG), a midbrain area rich in CB₁ receptors (Fig. 5). In wild-type (CB₁^{fl/fl}) mice, intense CB₁ receptor staining was observed in the grey matter of the superficial dorsal horn and in the dorsolateral funiculus as well as around the cerebral aqueduct in the PAG (Fig. 5A,D,D',G). This staining was completely absent in spinal cord and PAG sections obtained from global CB₁^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5B,E,E',H) indicating the specificity of the CB₁ receptor antibody (see also Nyilas et al., 2009). As expected, *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice exhibited a drastic reduction in CB₁ receptor expression in the spinal dorsal horn (Fig. 5C,F,F'), but not in the PAG (Fig. 5I). A side-by-side comparison of global CB₁^{-/-} and conditional *hoxb8*-

348 CB₁^{-/-} mice showed some remaining CB₁ immunoreactivity in the dorsal horn of the *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-}
 349 mice, especially in the most superficial layers of the dorsal horn, which might result from
 350 terminals of axons descending from supraspinal sites to the dorsal horn.

351 In behavioral experiments, *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice and wild-type (*hoxB8*-cre negative CB₁^{fl/fl})
 352 littermates did not differ in their baseline sensitivity to mechanical stimulation (PWT were $4.21 \pm$
 353 0.10 g ($n = 15$) and 4.39 ± 0.07 g ($n = 12$) in naïve *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice and CB₁^{fl/fl} littermates) and
 354 developed virtually identical inflammatory hyperalgesia with PWTs of 0.79 ± 0.07 g and $0.73 \pm$
 355 0.08 g in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice and CB₁^{fl/fl} littermates. Both genotypes also exhibited virtually
 356 identical anti-hyperalgesic responses to systemic acetaminophen treatment. AUC were $2.15 \pm$
 357 0.08 g·h ($n = 6$) and 1.59 ± 0.27 g·h ($n = 6$) for *hoxB8*-CB₁^{-/-} and cre-negative wild-type (CB₁^{fl/fl})
 358 mice, respectively (Fig. 5J). Very similar results were obtained with AM 404. AUCs were $1.41 \pm$
 359 0.12 g·h ($n = 9$) and 1.38 ± 0.11 g·h ($n = 6$), for *hoxB8*-CB₁^{-/-} and cre-negative littermates (Fig.
 360 5K). Together with the complete lack of anti-hyperalgesia by acetaminophen and AM 404 in CB₁^{-/-}
 361 mice, these results suggest that acetaminophen acted through CB₁ expressed at supraspinal
 362 sites. Alternatively, acetaminophen might act via CB₁ receptors expressed in the spinal cord on
 363 the terminals of neurons descending from supraspinal sites, which are not targeted by the
 364 *hoxB8*-cre (compare Fig. 5C,F,F'). To distinguish between these two possibilities we continued
 365 with local injections of AM 404 and of the CB₁ receptor antagonist rimonabant.

366

367 *Local injection of rimonabant and AM 404 suggest a critical role of the RVM in anti-hyperalgesia*
 368 *by systemic acetaminophen.*

369 The RVM serves well-established roles in endogenous pain control (Heinricher and Fields, 2013)
 370 and as a site of action of centrally acting analgesic drugs including cannabinoid ligands (Meng et
 371 al., 1998; Suplita et al., 2005). We therefore tested whether the RVM was also involved in the
 372 anti-hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen. To this end, we analyzed whether local injection
 373 into the RVM of the CB₁ receptor antagonist rimonabant would interfere with anti-hyperalgesia
 374 by systemic acetaminophen (Fig. 6). Rimonabant (and vehicle) injections were made via chronic
 375 cannulas that had been pre-implanted into the RVM one week before the experiment. Proper
 376 RVM injections were verified by addition of a small amount of Evans Blue to the injection
 377 solution and post-hoc anatomical analysis of mouse brain sections (Fig. 6A,B). Injection of
 378 rimonabant (0.67 µg in 300 nl) completely prevented the anti-hyperalgesic action of systemic
 379 acetaminophen (200 mg/kg) (Fig. 6C,D). The AUCs were 4.89 ± 1.35 g·h ($n = 5$) versus $0.67 \pm$
 380 0.54 g·h ($n = 6$), in aCSF and rimonabant pretreated mice, respectively ($P = 0.013$, unpaired
 381 Student's t-test). RVM injection of rimonabant *per se* did not affect inflammatory hyperalgesia
 382 and RVM injection of vehicle did neither affect the inflammatory hyperalgesia nor change the

anti-hyperalgesic response of acetaminophen. Injection of rimonabant or vehicle or cannula implantation into the RVM of naïve mice was tested in 5 - 7 mice per group. These interventions had no effect on mechanical pain response threshold (data not shown). We next tested whether the effect of acetaminophen would be mimicked by local RVM injection of AM 404. As expected, AM 404 (1 μ g, equivalent to 2.5 nmoles) significantly alleviated inflammatory hyperalgesia in wild-type mice but not in CB₁^{-/-} mice (Fig. 6E,F). In naïve mice, RVM injection of AM 404 did not significantly change PWTs (4.65 \pm 0.56 g versus 4.23 \pm 0.36 g, for AM 404 and vehicle, P = 0.54, n = 4 mice per group). In this series of experiments, we finally tested whether injection of acetaminophen into the RVM would reduce hyperalgesia (Fig. 6 G). Consistent with an only very low conversion of acetaminophen in AM 404 in the brain (Högestätt et al., 2005), acetaminophen (1 μ g in 300 nl) failed to significantly change PWTs (n = 6).

Distribution of CB₁ receptor mRNA and protein in the RVM.

In many parts of the CNS, cannabinoid receptors are located on presynaptic axon terminal where they control neuronal activity through the inhibition of neurotransmitter release. The experiments described above suggest that acetaminophen exerts its anti-hyperalgesia action through a perhaps indirect activation of antinociceptive fiber tracts descending from the RVM. To gain insights into the distribution of CB₁ receptors at this site, we performed immunohistochemistry and *in situ* hybridization experiments in wild-type and global CB₁^{-/-} mice (Fig. 7). The immunohistochemical experiments revealed that CB₁ receptors at the protein level were abundantly distributed throughout the RVM (Fig. 7A-D), which is consistent with a central role of the RVM in the CB₁-mediated anti-hyperalgesic action of acetaminophen. In contrast, CB₁ receptor mRNA was only detected in a few selected cells in the RVM close to the midline (Fig. 7E). No such cells were detected in tissue from CB₁^{-/-} mice (Fig. 7F). The low density CB₁-immunolabelling found in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord of *hoxB8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5F,F') likely reflects those descending fibers, which originate from the few RVM CB₁ mRNA-expressing cells.

Local ablation of CB₁ receptors in the RVM does not prevent the anti-hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen.

The results obtained with local injection into the RVM of rimonabant and AM 404 suggest a critical role of the RVM in the anti-hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen. The relevant CB₁ receptors in the RVM may either reside on RVM neurons themselves or may be located on axon terminals of neurons innervating the RVM. To distinguish between these possibilities, we selectively ablated receptors on intrinsic RVM neurons by local injection of CB₁^{fl/m} mice with

418 adeno-associated virus (AAV) carrying a cre recombinase expression cassette. AAV-cre virus
419 injections were performed one week before acetaminophen treatment. Successful cre-mediated
420 ablation of the CB₁ receptor gene was verified with real time RT-PCR. The number of CB₁
421 receptor transcripts in the RVM was reduced to about 25% (Fig. 8A). However, despite this
422 significant down-regulation of CB₁ receptors, acetaminophen-induced anti-hyperalgesia
423 remained largely unaffected (Fig. 8B,C). These results suggest that the relevant CB₁ receptors
424 reside on axon terminals of neurons projecting to the RVM rather than on intrinsic RVM neurons.
425 Figure 9 illustrates a possible scenario: AM 404 in the RVM would increase the concentration of
426 endocannabinoids (anandamide and 2-AG) and thereby indirectly activate CB₁ receptors on
427 inhibitory neurons that project to the RVM to tonically inhibit antinociceptive fiber tracts
428 descending to the spinal cord. Increased activation of CB₁ receptors on these neurons will
429 reduce GABA release and dis-inhibit endogenous descending pain control units. Since many of
430 the descending fibers release serotonin (Heinricher and Fields, 2013), this scenario is consistent
431 with previous reports proposing not only a central site of action of acetaminophen but also a
432 contribution of spinal serotonin receptors (Pelissier et al., 1995; Bonnefont et al., 2005).

434 Discussion

435 Our study demonstrates that acetaminophen exerts anti-hyperalgesic actions in a mouse model
436 of inflammatory pain consistent with previous experimental (Vinegar et al., 1976; McQueen et
437 al., 1991; Abbadie and Besson, 1994) and clinical studies (Skjelbred et al., 1977; Bradley et al.,
438 1991; Bjornsson et al., 2003; Brandt et al., 2006). These previous data have shown analgesia in
439 adjuvant-induced monoarthritis or postoperative swelling and against secondary pain in oral
440 surgery or osteoarthritic knee pain. Activity against inflammatory hyperalgesia and the well-
441 known antipyretic effect of acetaminophen have led researchers to speculate about an inhibitory
442 action of acetaminophen on prostaglandin formation, e.g. through COX inhibition. However,
443 acetaminophen is largely devoid of anti-inflammatory activity (Clissold, 1986; Bertolini et al.,
444 2006; Brunton et al., 2011), which is a hallmark effect of classical COX inhibitors. Significant
445 activity against inflammatory hyperalgesia in the absence of general anti-inflammatory efficacy
446 could be due to a specific inhibition of prostaglandin production in the CNS or to an analgesic
447 mechanism independent of the inhibition of prostaglandin formation. Several studies have
448 support a contribution of the endocannabinoid system. However, most of these studies used
449 models of acute nociceptive pain, which do not necessarily permit conclusions about the
450 mechanisms of anti-hyperalgesic actions.

451 As shown in a previous study from our group, zymosan A-induced hyperalgesia strongly
 452 depends on spinally produced PGE₂ (Reinold et al., 2005). This model is therefore well-suited to
 453 investigate mechanisms of drugs with anti-hyperalgesic actions in inflammatory conditions and
 454 should permit a straightforward detection of prostaglandin-dependent drug actions. The reversal
 455 of inflammatory hyperalgesia by acetaminophen observed in our study would hence be
 456 consistent with a block of PGE₂ production by acetaminophen. However, acetaminophen was
 457 still active when hyperalgesia was induced by local spinal injection of PGE₂ favoring a
 458 mechanism different from inhibition of prostaglandin formation. Several results of the present
 459 study support instead the involvement of central CB₁ receptors: the reversal of PGE₂-induced
 460 hyperalgesia by acetaminophen was absent in CB₁^{-/-} mice, and both AM 404 and
 461 acetaminophen failed to reverse zymosan A-induced hyperalgesia in CB₁^{-/-} mice. Furthermore,
 462 the congruent pattern of efficacy of acetaminophen and of AM 404 in different (global and spinal
 463 cord-specific) CB₁ receptor-deficient mouse lines supports the contribution of AM 404 to the anti-
 464 hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen. These results also correspond well with previous
 465 findings demonstrating that acetaminophen-induced analgesia was lost in FAAH^{-/-} mice, which
 466 do not convert acetaminophen into AM 404 (Högestätt et al., 2005; Dalmann et al., 2015).
 467 However, neither the present nor previously published results (Ottani et al., 2006; Dani et al.,
 468 2007; Mallet et al., 2008) exclude an involvement of COX-1 or COX-2 (Flower and Vane, 1972;
 469 Hanel and Lands, 1982; Muth-Selbach et al., 1999; Boutaud et al., 2002; Graham and Scott,
 470 2005). An *ex vivo* study performed in human volunteers demonstrated inhibition of COX-1 and
 471 COX-2 following the oral administration of acetaminophen (Hinz et al., 2008), and AM 404 has
 472 also been shown to block COX-1 and COX-2 in lipopolysaccharide-stimulated macrophages
 473 (Högestätt et al., 2005). In this context, it is important to note that COX-2 contributes to the
 474 metabolism of endocannabinoids (Yu et al., 1997; Kozak et al., 2000). The extent to which
 475 inhibition of COX-dependent endocannabinoid degradation or blockade of endocannabinoid
 476 transporters contribute to acetaminophen-induced analgesia remains to be determined.
 477 Our results can also be reconciled with a report by (Mallet et al., 2010), who have proposed a
 478 role of supraspinal TRPV1 receptors as additional targets in acetaminophen and AM 404-
 479 induced analgesia. AM 404 is not only an inhibitor of anandamide reuptake but also an agonist
 480 at TRPV1 receptors (De Petrocellis et al., 2000). The observation that AM 404-induced
 481 analgesia was absent in TRPV1^{-/-} mice and abolished by intracerebroventricular injection of the
 482 TRPV1 receptor antagonist capsazepine may suggest functional interactions of CB₁ and TRPV1
 483 receptors in the CNS (Fioravanti et al., 2008). More difficult to reconcile with our findings is the
 484 report by (Andersson et al., 2011). These authors ascribe the analgesic action of acetaminophen
 485 to the activation of TRPA1 channels on the spinal terminals of nociceptive fibers by the

486 acetaminophen metabolites NPQI and p-benzoquinone, and a subsequent inhibition of
 487 transmitter release via primary afferent depolarization. Since anti-hyperalgesia by
 488 acetaminophen was retained in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice, an interaction of TRPA1 channels with CB₁
 489 receptors cannot explain these findings. It is likely that distinct mechanisms underlie the acute
 490 analgesic and the anti-hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen.

491 Comparing the effects of classical cannabinoids with those of acetaminophen reveals similarities
 492 and differences. Classical cannabinoids exert a tetrad of actions in rodents, which includes
 493 analgesia, hypothermia, sedation (reduced locomotor activity), and catalepsy (Little et al., 1988).
 494 Analgesia, sedation and hypothermia do also occur in mice in response to acetaminophen
 495 (Mallet et al., 2010). While our data provide strong support for the involvement of cannabinoid
 496 signaling in acetaminophen-induced anti-hyperalgesia, cannabinoid independent actions are
 497 likely more relevant for the hypothermic and antipyretic effects of acetaminophen (Gentry et al.,
 498 2015). Such CB₁ receptor-independent mechanisms include the inhibition of hypothalamic COX
 499 by AM 404 (Högestätt et al., 2005) and the activation of TRPA1 via the acetaminophen
 500 metabolite NAPQI (Gentry et al., 2015). The mechanisms of acetaminophen-induced sedation in
 501 mice have not been identified so far and catalepsy is not seen in mice. Furthermore, the
 502 psychotropic actions seen with classical CB₁ receptor agonists in humans do not occur with
 503 acetaminophen. Local differences in the conversion of the acetaminophen metabolite p-
 504 aminophenol into pharmacologically active AM 404, caused for example by varying FAAH
 505 activity in different CNS regions, or differences in the local activity of endocannabinoid system
 506 may explain these discrepancies. Such differences may also account for another discrepancy.
 507 While a previous report has suggested that CB₁ receptor agonists exert most of their analgesic
 508 action through CB₁ receptors on peripheral nociceptors (Agarwal et al., 2007), our experiments
 509 in *hoxB8*-CB₁^{-/-}, which lack CB₁ receptors also from these cells, suggest that this is not the case
 510 for acetaminophen (see also Dalmann et al., 2015).

511 In our experiments, we also aimed at a better definition of the site of acetaminophen's action. To
 512 this end, we used *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice, which lack CB₁ receptors specifically from the spinal cord
 513 and peripheral sensory neurons. Because CB₁ receptors are densely expressed on different
 514 types of intrinsic spinal dorsal horn neurons and on sensory fiber terminals (Tsou et al., 1998;
 515 Farquhar-Smith et al., 2000; Bridges et al., 2003; Hegyi et al., 2009; Nyilas et al., 2009),
 516 experiments first focused on a possible spinal site of action. However, the anti-hyperalgesia by
 517 acetaminophen were completely preserved in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice.

518 At least two explanations may account for these findings. The CB₁ receptors responsible for
 519 acetaminophen analgesia might reside on the spinal terminals of fibers descending from
 520 supraspinal sites which are spared from *hoxb8*-cre mediated gene deletion. This scenario is

521 consistent with the presence of CB₁ receptors in the termination area of descending fiber tracts
522 in spinal cords of *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice, and with the efficacy of AM 404 after intrathecal injection.
523 However, AM 404 might have diffused to supraspinal sites after lumbar intrathecal injection.
524 Such diffusion has been demonstrated earlier for radioactively labeled morphine (Gustafsson et
525 al., 1985). Alternatively, acetaminophen might act via CB₁ receptors at supraspinal sites located
526 e.g. in the brainstem, where the somata of descending antinociceptive fiber tracts are located.
527 Our experiments with local injection of rimonabant and AM 404 into the RVM provide strong
528 support for this scenario (see also Högestätt et al., 2005; Mallet et al., 2008; Mallet et al., 2010;
529 Dalmann et al., 2015). According to these previous studies, acetaminophen acts through a CB₁
530 receptor-mediated reinforcement of descending serotonergic bulbospinal pathways originating
531 from the RVM (Mallet et al., 2008) with subsequent activation of pain-suppressing serotonin
532 receptors in the spinal cord (Tjolsen et al., 1991; Pelissier et al., 1995; Pini et al., 1996;
533 Bonnefont et al., 2005). Our results are thus in line with the important role of supraspinal CB₁
534 receptors in stress-induced analgesia (Hohmann et al., 2005; Suplita et al., 2006).
535 Strong CB₁ receptor immune reactivity but weak *in situ* hybridization signals in the RVM suggest
536 that the relevant CB₁ receptors reside on processes of neurons that project to the RVM from
537 other brain areas. In this scenario, it is likely that the acetaminophen metabolite AM 404
538 promotes the activation of CB₁ receptors on GABAergic axon terminals that tonically inhibit
539 serotonergic antinociceptive fiber tracts descending from the RVM to the spinal cord. Since the
540 periaqueductal grey (PAG) controls RVM activity via descending axons (Heinricher and Fields,
541 2013), it is conceivable that the CB₁ receptors relevant for the analgesic action of
542 acetaminophen reside on the terminals of fibers reaching the RVM from the PAG.
543 Acetaminophen would thus indirectly reduce GABA release from these projections and dis-inhibit
544 descending serotonergic fibers to facilitate endogenous pain control.
545 In summary, our results shed new light on the mechanisms and sites of action of the anti-
546 hyperalgesic action of the widely used analgesic acetaminophen. They support the involvement
547 of the endocannabinoid system in the analgesic action of acetaminophen against inflammatory
548 pain and identify the RVM and descending antinociceptive fiber tracts as a likely site and
549 mechanism of action.

550

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- 730

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Anti-hyperalgesic actions of acetaminophen (p.o.) and AM 404 (i.t.) in the zymosan A model of inflammatory hyperalgesia. **(A)** Partial reversal of reduction in PWT (g) by acetaminophen 200 mg/kg. $n = 6$ mice. **(B)** The same dose of acetaminophen had no significant effect on PWT in naïve mice. Unpaired Student's *t*-test, $P = 0.66$, $n = 5$ and 7 , for acetaminophen and vehicle, respectively. Horizontal line indicates the time interval used to determine the maximal effects. **(C)** Effects of different doses of systemic acetaminophen administered 24 hours following s.c. injection of zymosan A ($n = 6$ mice per dose) on mechanical PWTs quantified as percent maximal possible effect (% maximum possible analgesia; mean \pm SEM). **(D)** Dose response curve. Average % maximum possible analgesia determined for the intervals 60 and 80 min after drug administration was calculated for each group and fitted to the Hill equation. $*P \leq 0.05$, $***P < 0.001$, ANOVA followed by Dunnett's *post-hoc* test, $F(4,25) = 10.11$ with $F_{crit} = 2.76$. **(E,F)** Same as (C,D) but intrathecal AM 404 ($n = 6$ mice per group). Average % maximum possible analgesia was determined for the time interval between 20 and 40 min after drug injection. $*P \leq 0.05$, $***P < 0.001$, ANOVA followed by Dunnett's *post-hoc* test, $F(4,25) = 25.15$. **(G,H)** Impact of systemic acetaminophen on muscle strength (percent successful attempts in the horizontal wire test) **(G)** and on motor coordination (time on rotarod) **(H)** at 60 – 90 min after oral acetaminophen administration. No statistically significant effects were found in the two tests. **(G)** ANOVA followed by Dunnett's *post hoc* test. $F(2,22) = 1.46$. $P = 0.33$ and 0.92 , for 200 and 300 mg/kg, $n = 7-8$ mice. **(H)** $F(2,22) = 1.43$. $P = 0.33$ and 0.97 , for 200 and 300 mg/kg, $n = 7-8$ mice.

755 **Fig. 2** Acute liver toxicity of acetaminophen. **(A-C)** Plasma levels of enzymatic markers of liver
 756 damage were quantified in mice 24 hours after p.o. treatment with vehicle, 200 mg/kg or 300
 757 mg/kg acetaminophen. Statistical comparisons were made with ANOVA followed by Dunnett's
 758 post-hoc test. **(A)** ALT: $F(2,21) = 2.55$, $P = 0.99$ and 0.02 , for 200 and 300 mg/kg, $n = 6 - 8$
 759 mice. **(B)** AST: $F(2,21) = 2.67$, $P = 0.91$ and 0.08 , for 200 and 300 mg/kg, $n = 7 - 8$ mice. **(C)**
 760 LDH: $F(2,20) = 5.28$, $P = 0.97$ and 0.09 , for 200 and 300 mg/kg, $n = 7 - 8$ mice. **(D)** Histological
 761 changes caused by acetaminophen treatment were assessed 24 hours after drug administration.
 762 The percent venules surrounded by discolored tissue was calculated. No significant changes
 763 were observed after 200 and 300 mg/kg, however 400 mg/kg caused statistically significant liver
 764 damage. $F(3,20) = 6.05$, $P = 0.69$, 0.78 , and 0.014 , for 200, 300 and 400 mg/kg, $n = 6$ mice for
 765 all four groups. Right micrographs show magnifications of the indicated areas with healthy tissue
 766 surrounding a venule in the section taken from a vehicle treated mouse (veh) and damaged
 767 tissue around a venue in the section prepared from a mouse treated with 400 mg/kg. Dotted line
 768 in the top left micrograph indicates the damage area around the venule in the center.

769
 770 **Fig. 3** Effect of CB₁ receptor ablation on the antihyperalgesic actions of by acetaminophen and
 771 AM 404. **(A)** Acetaminophen (200 mg/kg, p.o.). Time course of changes in PWT. Acetaminophen
 772 was given 24 hours after injection of zymosan A to wild-type mice ($n = 6$) and to CB₁^{-/-} mice ($n =$
 773 8). Bar chart: AUCs (g·h, mean \pm SEM). *, $P \leq 0.05$, unpaired Student's t-test. **(B)** AM 404 (10
 774 nmol, i.t.) was administered 24 hours after injection of zymosan A in wild-type and CB₁^{-/-} mice (n
 775 $= 7$ each). *** $P < 0.001$, unpaired Student's t-test. **(C)** Systemic pretreatment with rimonabant
 776 (rim, 5 mg/kg, i.p.) completely blocked anti-hyperalgesia by acetaminophen. Two-way ANOVA
 777 $F(1,22) = 9.08$, $P = 0.007$ for pretreatment \times treatment interaction, $n = 4 - 8$ per group. **, $P <$
 778 0.01 , $n = 6$ and 8 mice for vehicle and rimonabant pretreated mice (unpaired Student's t-test).

779
 780 **Fig. 4** Effect of acetaminophen (200 mg/kg, p.o.) on mechanical hyperalgesia evoked by
 781 intrathecal PGE₂ (0.4 nmol) in wild-type and CB₁^{-/-} mice. **(A)** Change in PWTs (mean \pm SEM).
 782 PGE₂ was injected i.t. at time 0. Acetaminophen or vehicle were given p.o. (1 hour after PGE₂
 783 injection. $n = 7$ and 6 for acetaminophen and vehicle, respectively. **(B)** AUC (mean \pm SEM).
 784 Two-way ANOVA yielded a significant genotype \times treatment interaction $F(1,25) = 5.46$, $P = 0.03$.
 785 $n = 6 - 7$ mice per group.

786

787 **Fig. 5** Morphological and behavioral analysis of *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice. **(A-I)** CB₁ receptor expression
 788 in the spinal dorsal horn and PAG of wild-type, CB₁^{-/-} and *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice. **(A)** High density of
 789 CB₁ receptor-immunostaining is found in the superficial layers in the dorsal horn of wild type
 790 (CB₁^{fl/fl}) mouse spinal cord. **(D,D')** At higher magnification, an abundant punctate staining pattern
 791 corresponding mostly to axon terminals is observed. **(B,E,E')** The specificity of this staining
 792 pattern is validated by the complete lack of immunostaining on spinal cord sections derived from
 793 global CB₁^{-/-} animals. **(C,F,F')** Deletion of CB₁ receptors from DRG and spinal neurons as well as
 794 from astrocytes in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} animals did not fully eliminate CB₁ receptor immunostaining. A
 795 remaining weak staining pattern was found in lamina I and II, where most descending
 796 monoaminergic fibers terminate. **(G)** Immunostaining for CB₁ receptors in the midbrain
 797 periaqueductal grey nucleus (PAG) is concentrated around the dorsal and central part of the
 798 PAG. **(H)** This staining pattern is completely eliminated in the global CB₁^{-/-} animals, but remains
 799 fully intact in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} mice. Similar results were obtained in three mice of both genotypes.
 800 Scale bars are: (C valid also for A,B) 100 µm; (F applies also for D,E) 20 µm; (F' applies also for
 801 D',E') 10 µm; and (I valid also for G,H) 200 µm. **(J,K)** Behavioral analysis. Changes in PWTs
 802 induced by the acetaminophen (200 mg/kg, p.o., **J**) in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} (*n* = 6) and wild-type (CB₁^{fl/fl})
 803 mice (*n* = 6), and by AM 404 (10 nmol, i.t., **K**) in *hoxb8*-CB₁^{-/-} (*n* = 6) and wild-type (CB₁^{fl/fl}) mice
 804 (*n* = 9). Acetaminophen and AM 404 were administered 24 hours after zymosan A injection.
 805 Differences in AUCs were statistically insignificant (unpaired Student's t-test).

806
 807 **Fig. 6** Local RVM injection of rimonabant blocks and local RVM injection of AM 404 mimics the
 808 anti-hyperalgesic action of systemic acetaminophen.
 809 **(A)** Sagittal brain section taken from a mouse after RVM injection verifies proper local RVM
 810 injection procedures. Red, Evans Blue; blue, DAPI **(B)** Respective brain regions (sagittal section
 811 at -0.04 mm) redrawn and simplified from Paxinos and Franklin (2001) for comparison. **(C,D)**
 812 Local injection of rimonabant (0.67 µg in 300 nl) prevented anti-hyperalgesia by systemic
 813 acetaminophen. Cannulation of the RVM, and injection of vehicle or rimonabant were *per se*
 814 without effect on mechanical pain thresholds. **(C)** Time course. **(D)** Two-way ANOVA revealed a
 815 significant pretreatment x treatment interaction. (*F*(1,23) = 10.8, *n* = 5 – 7 mice per group *P* <
 816 0.004). *, *P* < 0.05, unpaired Student's t-test, acetaminophen in aCSF (*n* = 5) or rimonabant (*n* =
 817 6) pretreated mice. **(E,F)** Local injection of AM 404 (1 µg in 300 nl) into the RVM mimicked
 818 acetaminophen-induced anti-hyperalgesia. **(E)** Time course. **(F)** Statistics. ANOVA followed by
 819 Bonferroni post hoc test. *F*(2,17) = 13.4. ***, *P* ≤ 0.001, *n* = 6 mice per group. **(G)** Local injection
 820 of acetaminophen (1 µg in 300 nl) into the RVM had no effect on paw withdrawal threshold.

821

822 **Fig. 7** CB₁ receptor immunoreactivity and in situ hybridization in the RVM.

823 (A,B) CB₁ receptor immunoreactivity in coronal sections through the brainstem of wild-type (A)
824 and CB₁^{-/-} mice (B). The lack of brownish color of the DAB precipitate in the CB₁^{-/-} tissue (B)
825 confirms the specificity of CB₁ immunolabeling. Squares indicate the area of the RVM shown at
826 high magnification in (C-F). (C) CB₁ protein is present in high density within the RVM of wild-
827 type mice. Note the dense DAB puncta around the cell bodies, which are always devoid of
828 labeling. (D) No CB₁ immunostaining can be found in control sections from CB₁^{-/-} mice, which
829 were processed together with the wild-type sections throughout the whole immunostaining
830 procedure. The dark yellow color of the white matter bundles is due to an osmification step of
831 tissue dehydration. (E) CB₁ in situ hybridization signal in the RVM. Only a few scattered neurons
832 (blue) express CB₁ receptor mRNA at rather low levels. (F) No labelled cells are present in
833 control sections prepared from CB₁ receptor-deficient mice. Scale bars are 250 μm in A,B; 50
834 μm in C-F.

835
836 **Fig. 8** Local knock-down of CB₁ receptor expression in intrinsic RVM neurons fails to prevent
837 acetaminophen-induced anti-hyperalgesia.

838 (A) Changes in CB₁ receptor mRNA levels seven days after AAV-cre injection in CB₁^{fl/fl} mice.
839 mRNA levels have been normalized to β-actin mRNA copy numbers. **, $P < 0.01$. $n = 19$ and 14,
840 for AAV-Cre and AAV-GFP, respectively. Unpaired Student's t-test. (B) Anti-hyperalgesia by
841 acetaminophen (200 mg/kg). RVM cannula implantation and AAV-cre injections were made 7
842 days before acetaminophen treatment. Zymosan A was injected 1 day, before acetaminophen
843 treatment. Mechanical PWTs were determined before AAV-cre injection, after zymosan A
844 injection, and after acetaminophen or vehicle administration. (C) Statistical analyses.
845 Comparisons of acetaminophen effects in the three treatment groups (AAV-cre, AAV-eGFP,
846 sham operated mice) revealed significant acetaminophen versus vehicle effects (*, $P < 0.05$, $n =$
847 6 – 8 / group) but no significant treatment x pretreatment interaction (two-way ANOVA $F(2,39) =$
848 0.41, $P = 0.67$).

849
850

851 **Fig. 9** Hypothetical scheme of the central site of action of acetaminophen in inflammatory pain
852 conditions.

853 AM 404 produced from systemically administered acetaminophen increases the concentration of
854 endocannabinoids (AEA and 2-AG) in the RVM by inhibiting their uptake or degradation. This
855 increase activates CB₁ receptors on axon terminals of neurons projecting to the RVM from
856 upstream brain regions such as the PAG. These terminals normally release GABA to tonically
857 inhibit serotonergic antinociceptive fiber tracts, which descend from the RVM to the spinal cord.
858 Increased activation of CB₁ receptors in the RVM would then reduce GABA release in the RVM
859 and dis-inhibit descending pain control units. For a detailed discussion on the role of
860 serotonergic neurons in the RVM, see (Heinricher and Fields, 2013).

861

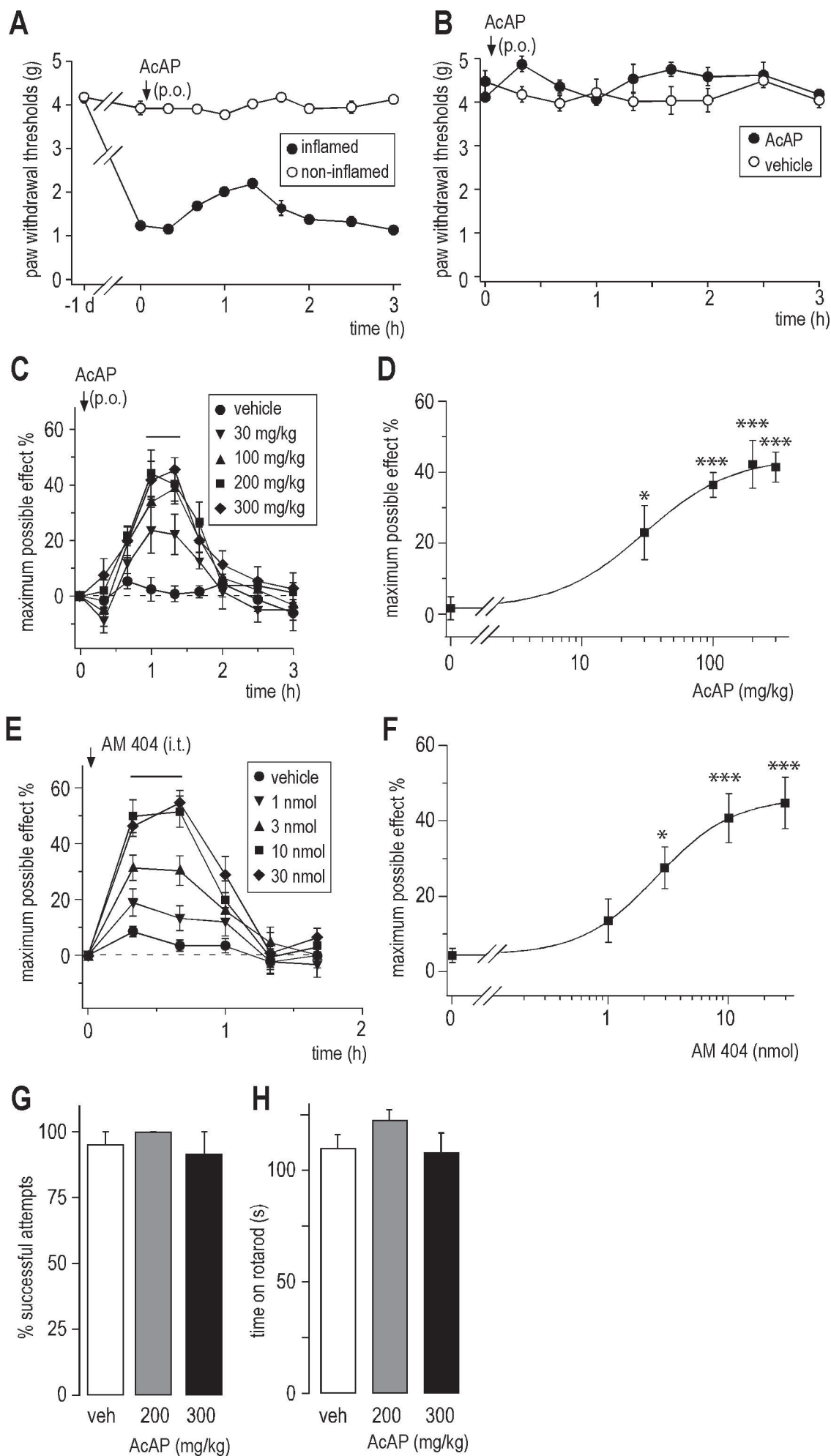


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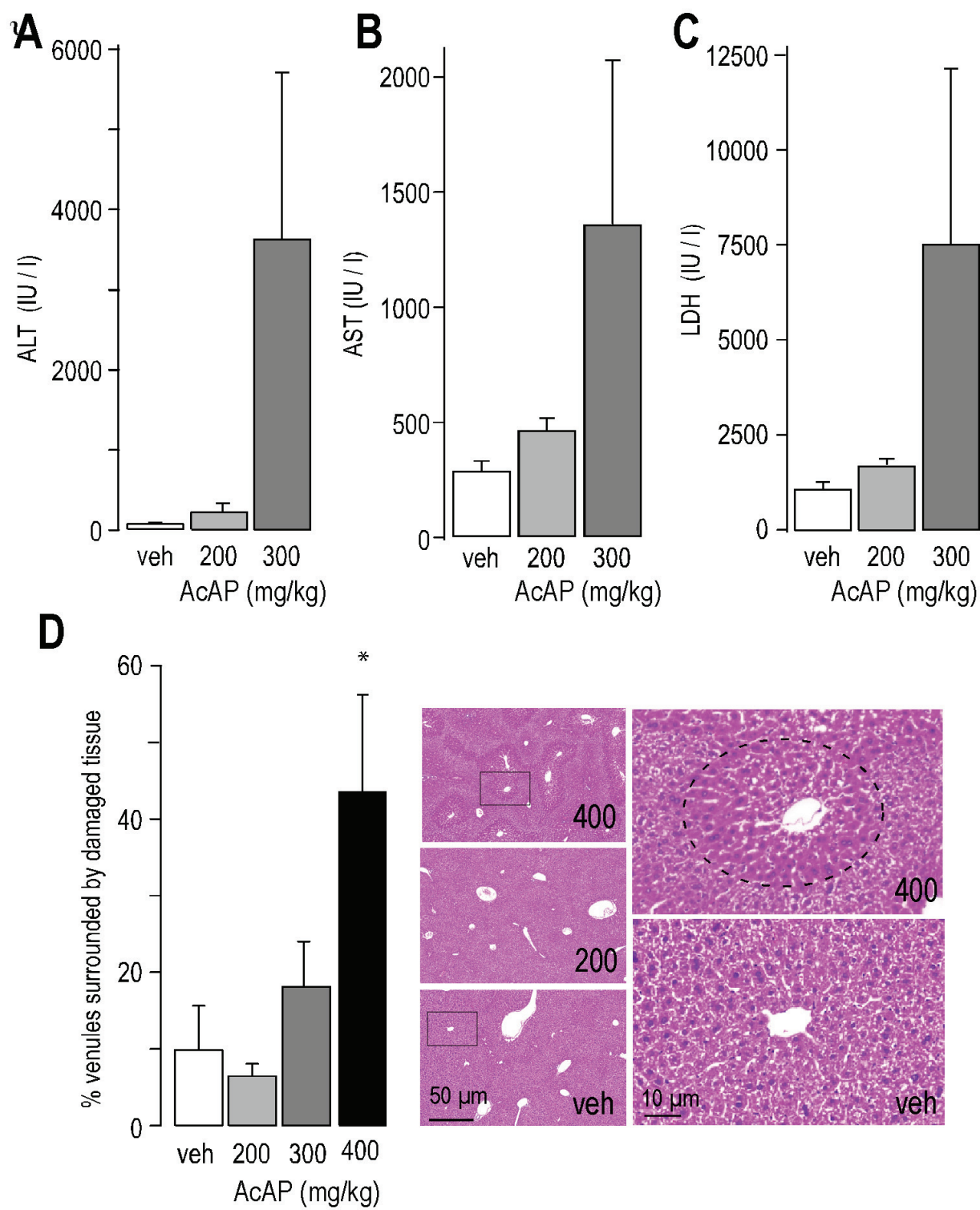


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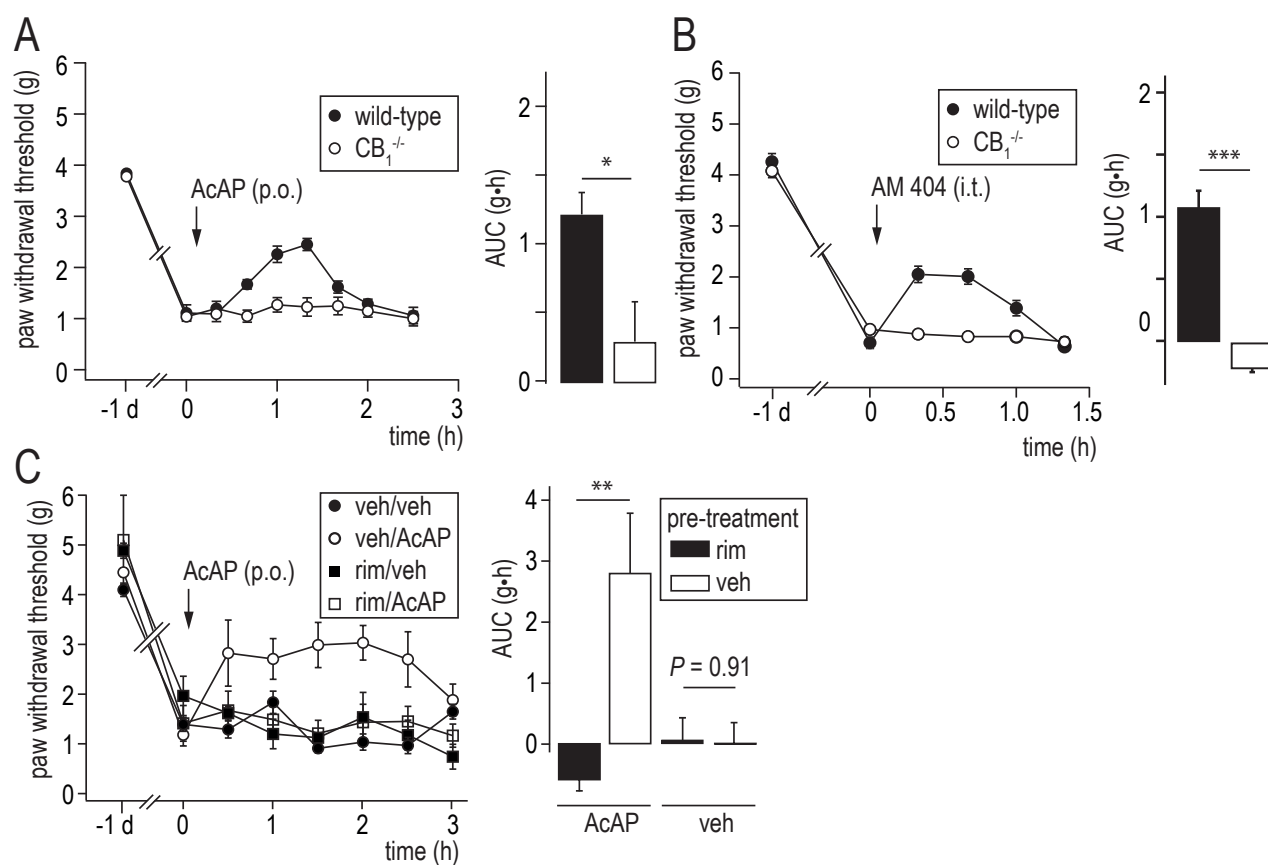


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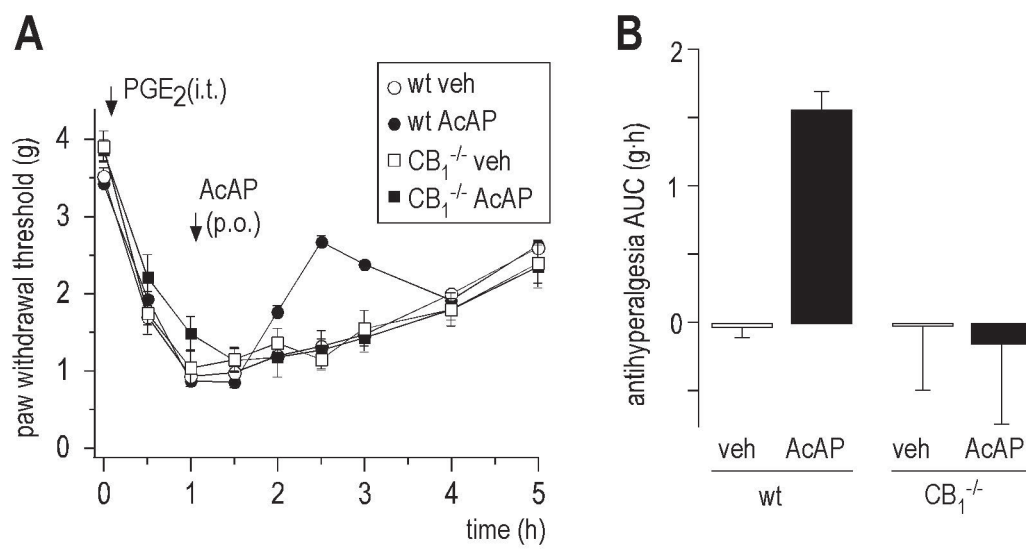


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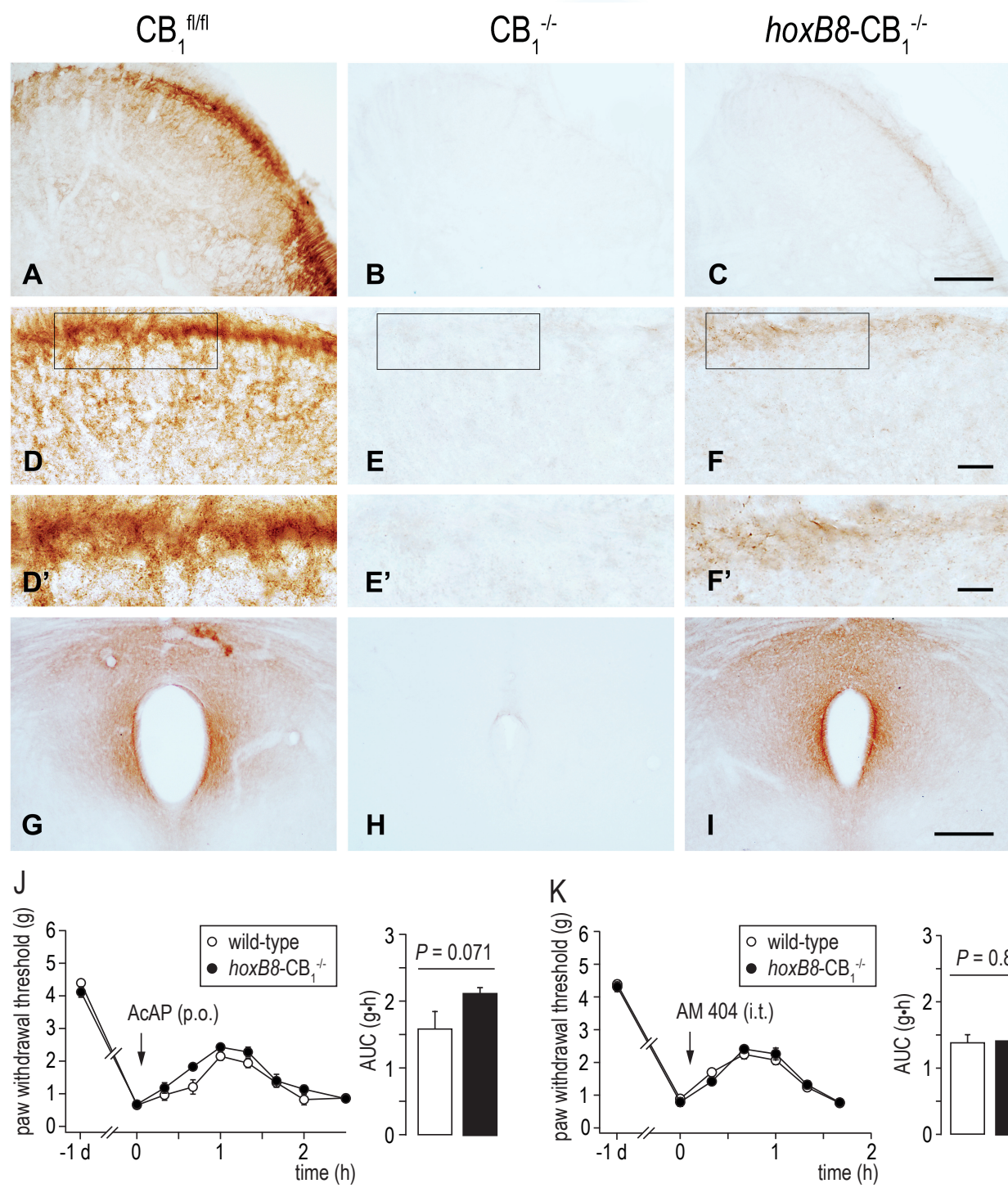


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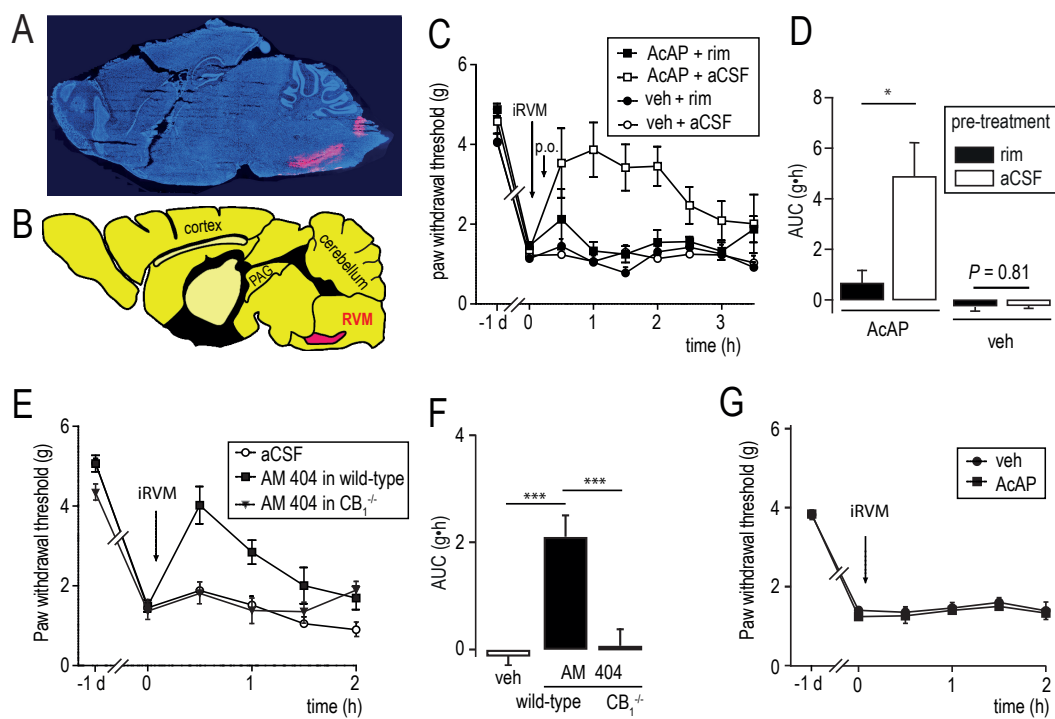


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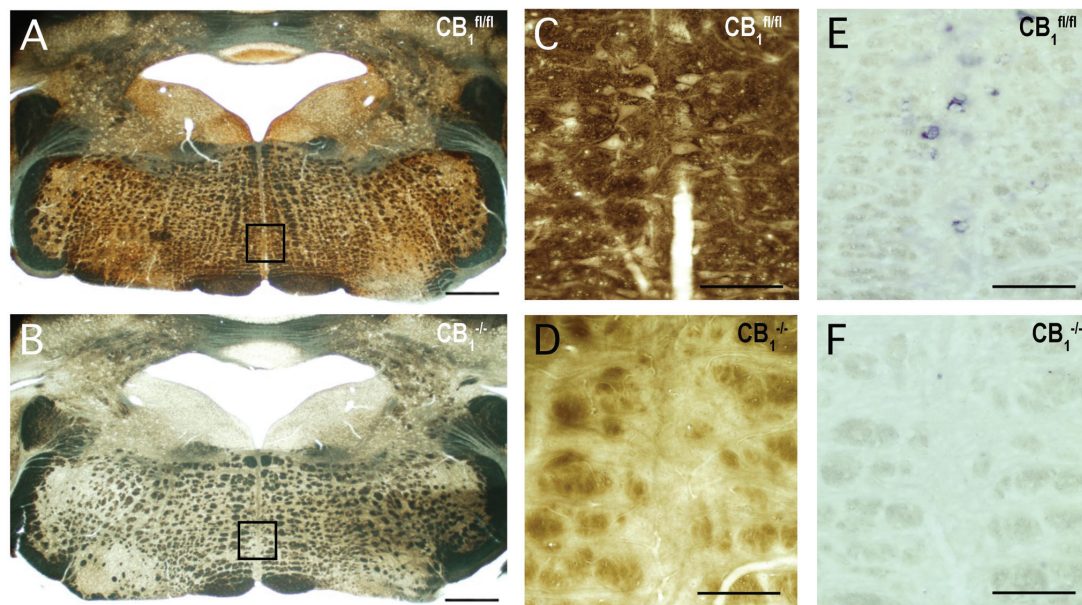


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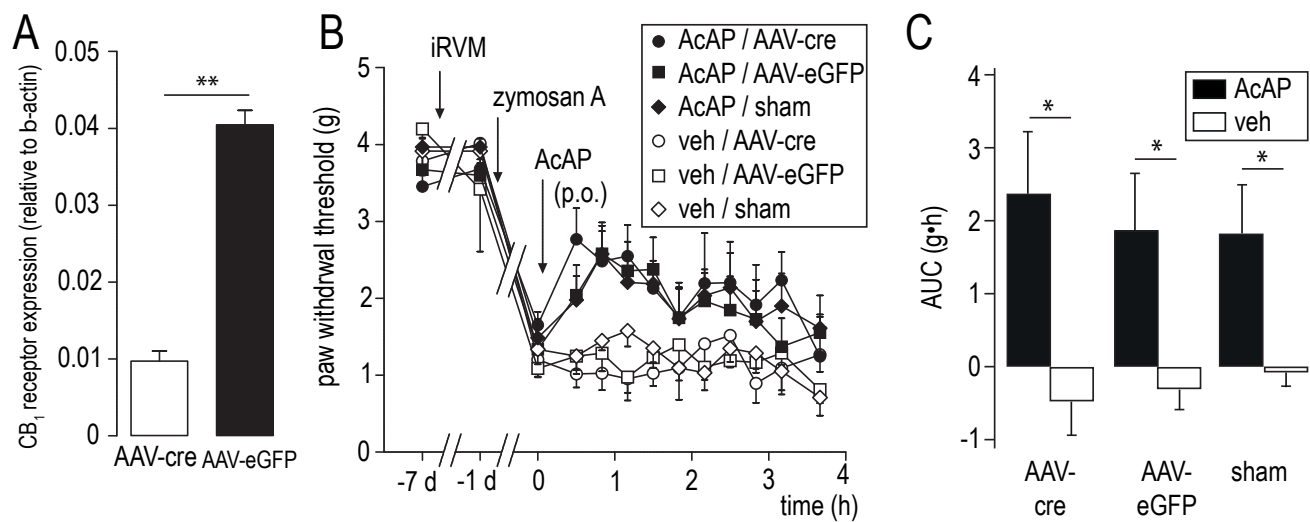


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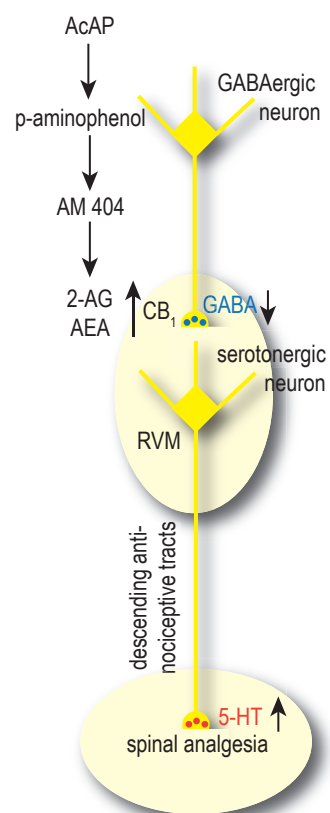


figure 9